

Comparison of the Relative Effects of 1,24-Dihydroxyvitamin D_2 [1,24-(OH)₂D₂], 1,24-Dihydroxyvitamin D_3 [1,24-(OH)₂D₃], and 1,25-Dihydroxyvitamin D_3 [1,25-(OH)₂D₃] on Selected Vitamin D-Regulated Events in the Rat

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ABSTRACT. The present experiments were conducted to compare the relative hypercalciuric and hypercalcemic activities of 1,24-dihydroxyvitamin D₂ [1,24-(OH)₂D₂], 1,24-dihydroxyvitamin D₃ [1,24-(OH)₂D₃], and 1,25-dihydroxyvitamin D₃ [1,25-(OH)₂D₃] in 7-week-old rats. The rats were dosed orally with each sterol for 7 days at a rate of 1 ng/g body weight/day. We also monitored the effect of the three compounds on the induction of mRNA for CaATPase and for 25-hydroxyvitamin D-24-hydroxylase in the kidney and intestine, on plasma vitamin D metabolite levels, and on the capacity to evoke modification in the vitamin D receptor/retinoic acid X receptor (VDR/RXR) heterodimer conformation. Plasma calcium was elevated in the rats treated with 1,24-(OH)₂D₃ and 1,25-(OH)₂D₃, but not in the 1,24-(OH)₂D₂-dosed rats. Urinary calcium was elevated significantly (relative to controls) in all groups. The order of hypercalciuric activity was 1,25-(OH)₂D₃ \geq $1,24-(OH)_2D_3 \ge 1,24-(OH)_2D_2 > control$. Duodenal plasma membrane calcium ATPase (PMCA) mRNA was elevated to a similar extent in all groups relative to controls. Duodenal 24-hydroxylase mRNA was elevated in all groups relative to controls; however, the elevations were significantly higher in the 1,24-(OH)₂D₃ and 1,25-(OH)₂D₃ groups compared with the 1,24-(OH)₂D₂ group. Kidney 24-hydroxylase also was elevated significantly in the 1,24-(OH)₂D₃- and 1,25-(OH)₂D₃-treated rats but not in the 1,24-(OH)₂D₂-treated rats. Recombinant human vitamin D receptor (hVDR) extracts were incubated with saturating concentrations of 1,24-(OH)₂D₂, 1,24-(OH)₂D₃, and 1,25-(OH)₂D₃ and subsequently analyzed by electrophoretic mobility shift assay (EMSA). Overall binding was comparable for all metabolites; however, the 1,24-(OH)₂D₂ complex exhibited distinctly altered mobility relative to 1,24-(OH)₂D₃ and 1,25-(OH)₂D₃, suggestive of an effect on hVDR/hRXR conformation. These data suggest that 1,24-(OH)₂D₂ is not as potent as either of the vitamin D₃ sterols at affecting hypercalcemia or hypercalciuria in young growing rats; however, 1,24-(OH)₂D₂ can evoke other biological responses similar to the vitamin D₃ sterols. These different responses may be related to the alterations in conformation state of the hVDR/hRXR heterodimer. BIOCHEM PHARMACOL 60;5:701-708, 2000. © 2000 Elsevier Science Inc.

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The 24-position of vitamin D_2 , in contrast to the similar position in vitamin D_3 , can be considered to be highly reactive. It is both a tertiary carbon and an allylic position, and the formation of a reactive intermediate (radical, cation) at this position would be highly stabilized. The proximity of this reactive center to the 25-position, therefore, would afford the possibility of C-24-hydroxylation of vitamin D_2 . Jones *et al.* [1] demonstrated that this is indeed

the case when they isolated 24-OH- $D_2\P$ from plasma of male rats treated with 100 IU of radiolabeled vitamin D_2 .

¶ Abbreviations: 24-OH-D₂, 24-hydroxyvitamin D₂; 25-OH-D₂, 25-hydroxyvitamin D₂; 1,24-(OH)₂D₃, 1,24-dihydroxyvitamin D₂; 1,24-(OH)₂D₃, 1,25-dihydroxyvitamin D₃; 1,25-(OH)₂D₃, 1,25-dihydroxyvitamin D₃; 1,25-(OH)₂D₂, 1,25-dihydroxyvitamin D₂; 1α-OH-D₂, 1α-hydroxyvitamin D₂; 1α-OH-D₃, 1α-hydroxyvitamin D₃; 1,24,25-(OH)₃D₃, 1,24,25-trihydroxyvitamin D₃; 1,24,25-(OH)₃D₂, 1,24,26-trihydroxyvitamin D₂; 1,24,26-(OH)₃D₂, 1,24,26-trihydroxyvitamin D₂; VDRE, vitamin D response elements; 24-hydroxylase, vitamin D-24-hydroxylase; VDR, vitamin D receptor; rhVDR, recombinant human vitamin D receptor; RXR, retinoic acid X receptor; rhRXR, recombinant human retinoic acid X receptor; DTT, dithiothreitol; RT–PCR, reverse transcriptase–polymerase chain reaction; EMSA, electrophoretic mobility shift assay; RIA, radio-immunoassay; and PMCA₁ plasma membrane calcium ATPase isoform 1.

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702 R. Horst et al.

Engstrom and Koszewski [2] extended these observations by demonstrating that the production of 24-OH- D_2 exceeds formation of 25-OH- D_2 by pig liver extracts *in vitro*. In experiments with rats, Horst *et al.* [3] showed that the concentration of 24-OH- D_2 in plasma is ~20% that of 25-OH- D_2 in rats receiving physiologic doses (100 IU/day) of vitamin D_2 and is equivalent to 25-OH- D_2 in rats receiving superphysiologic (800 IU/day) doses of vitamin D_2 . Furthermore, 24-hydroxylation has been shown to be an activation pathway for vitamin D_2 with the demonstration that 24-OH- D_2 stimulates intestinal calcium transport to an extent similar to 25-OH- D_2 and that 24-OH- D_2 can be 1α -hydroxylated to form 1,24-(OH) $_2D_2$, which binds to VDR with a slightly lower affinity than that of 1,25-(OH) $_2D_2$ and 1,25-(OH) $_2D_3$ [3].

In addition to representing a minor, but significant, activation pathway for vitamin D_2 metabolism, the formation of 1,24-(OH) $_2D_2$ also represents a pathway for the activation of 1α -OH- D_2 . Studies using human hepatoma cells have shown that increasing the concentration of 1α -OH- D_2 in the medium from 1 nM to 10 μ M produces a disproportionate increase in 24-hydroxylation compared with 25-hydroxylation, so that 1,24-(OH) $_2D_2$ predominates at higher substrate concentrations (>100 nM) [4].

Although 24-hydroxylation appears to be a significant physiologic pathway for vitamin D_2 metabolism, the analogous pathway for vitamin D_3 has never been convincingly demonstrated to occur *in vivo*. Furthermore, using the human hepatoma cell cultures, Strugnell *et al.* [4] could not demonstrate the production of 1,24-(OH)₂D₃ when 1α -OH-D₃ was used as substrate.

Nonetheless, 1,24-(OH)₂D₃ has been chemically synthesized, and its biologic activities have been evaluated. Reports suggest that both 1,24-(OH)₂D₂ and 1,24-(OH)₂D₃ are active *in vivo* but may be less hypercalcemic than 1,25-(OH)₂D₃ [3, 5–9]. The present experiments extend these studies to compare the calcemic effects of these two analogs and to evaluate the *in vivo* responsiveness of vitamin D-regulated genes to 1,24-(OH)₂D₂, 1,24-(OH)₂D₃, and 1,25-(OH)₂D₃ in vitamin D₃-replete rats.

MATERIALS AND METHODS Vitamin D Compounds

(24S)-1,24-(OH)₂D₂ was provided by Bone Care International, (24R)-1,24-(OH)₂D₃ was a gift from Dr. Hector DeLuca, and 1,25-(OH)₂D₃ was a gift from Dr. Milan Uskokovic. The compounds were dissolved in 50 μ L ethanol, which was diluted further with fractionated coconut oil to give a final concentration of 2 ng/ μ L.

Rats

Male weanling rats (3 weeks of age) were purchased from Sprague–Dawley and maintained on a commercial diet purchased from Purina Mills, Inc. containing 1.01% calcium and 0.74% phosphorus. The rats were housed in

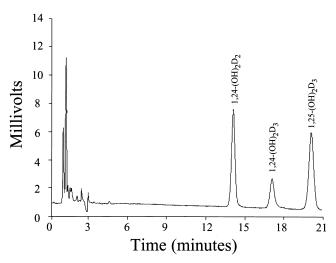


FIG. 1. Elution of $1,24-(OH)_2D_2$, $1,24-(OH)_2D_3$, and $1,25-(OH)_2D_3$ from an Econosphere 3- μ m silica column developed in hexane:isopropanol:methanol (96:2.6:1.4) at a flow rate of 2.0 mL/min.

hanging wire cages until they reached a weight of \sim 200 g (7–10 days), after which they were transferred to individual metabolic cages. The rats were allowed an additional 7 days of adaptation prior to beginning a 7-day dosing and collection period. During the daily dosing and collection period, rats received vitamin D compounds orally at the rate of 1 ng/g body weight. Urine was collected daily into 50-mL polyethylene tubes containing 0.2 mL acetic acid. Each morning the urine tubes were removed from cages and frozen immediately. During the adaptation and collection periods, metabolic cages were disassembled and cleaned on a daily basis to assure that urine and feces were freely flowing and to prevent the potential contamination of excretory products with feed. At the end of the 7-day collection period, the rats were decapitated (under CO₂:O₂ 1:1 anesthesia) 4–5 hr after receiving their final dose of analogue. Blood and tissues were collected for assays.

Plasma and Urine Assays

Isolation of the dihydroxyvitamin D metabolites was achieved using the $C_{18}OH$ extraction system [10]. In this system $1,24-(OH)_2D_2$ and $1,24-(OH)_2D_3$ co-migrate with 1,25-(OH)₂D₃ (data not shown). Therefore, [3 H]-1,25-(OH)₂D₃ was used for recovery estimates. The three vitamin D sterols were separated by HPLC using an Econosphere 3-µm silica column developed in hexane: isopropanol:methanol (96:2.6:1.4) (Fig. 1). The fractions containing the vitamin D sterols were collected individually and assayed using analytical reagents from Diasorin, Inc. The polyclonal antibody used had equal affinity for the 1α-hydroxylated metabolites (Fig. 2). Therefore, 1,25-(OH)₂D₃ was used as the RIA standard for estimating the concentrations of each of the three sterols. Plasma and urine calcium were measured by atomic absorption spectrophotometry. Urinary creatinine was measured colorimetrically [11].

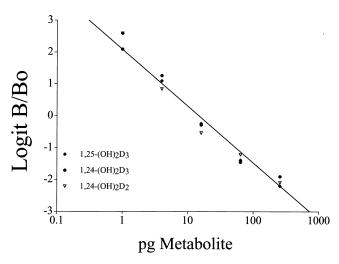


FIG. 2. Displacement potency of $1,24-(OH)_2D_2$, $1,24-(OH)_2D_3$, and $1,25-(OH)_2D_3$ in the RIA used for assaying plasma concentrations of these vitamin D sterols.

Kidney and Duodenal PMCA₁ and 24-Hydroxylase Oligonucleotide Primers for RT-PCR

The duodenal mucosa and kidneys were collected, frozen immediately in liquid nitrogen, and stored at -80° . Total RNA from frozen tissues was isolated by using Trizol reagent and a modified single-step RNA isolation method developed by Chomczynski and Sacchi [12].

Oligonucleotide primers for PMCA₁ were 5'-GCC ATC TTC TGC ACA ATT GT-3' (sense primer), nt 3200–3219, and 5'-TCA GAG TGA TGT TTC CAA AC-3' (antisense primer), nt 3825–3844. Oligonucleotide primers for 24-hydroxylase were 5'-ACC GCC TAC AGA GAT ATT CCC AG-3' (sense primer), nt 1206–1228, and 5'-ACC CGA AAC CGT TGG TTT GTC-3' (antisense primer), nt 1558–1578. All oligonucleotide primers were synthesized by Integrated DNA Technologies, Inc.

The mimics for PMCA₁ and 24-hydroxylase were prepared as follows. The PMCA₁ mimic DNA fragment is a homologous sequence to hPMCA₁ cDNA. The 644-bp PMCA₁ band resulting from the RT–PCR using the primers described above was digested with *DdeI*. The internal sequence, 156 bp, was removed; the flanking sequences were ligated, and the resulting 488-bp mimic was amplified using the PMCA₁ primer set. This DNA was used as the mimic for PMCA₁ analysis. The 24-hydroxylase standard DNA fragment was a heterologous sequence to 24-hydroxylase cDNA. It was prepared using the Clontech mimic construction kit (Clontech), according to the manufacturer's instructions. This resulted in a 244-bp mimic DNA that was amplified by the 24-hydroxylase primers.

The RT–PCR was set up in a single-tube reaction. Briefly, 0.25 or 0.5 μg of total RNA was used to quantitate the mRNA of PMCA₁ or 24-hydroxylase, respectively. The reaction was adjusted with the following conditions in a total volume of 50 μL : 10 mM Tris–HCl (pH 8.3), 50 mM KCl, 1.5 mM MgCl₂, 0.8 mM of each dNTP, 50 or 25 pmol oligonucleotide primers (PMCA₁ or 24-hydroxylase prim-

ers, respectively), 10 U RNasin (Promega), 25 U Moloney murine leukemia virus (M-MLV) RT (Gibco/BRL), 1.25 U Taq DNA polymerase (Boehringer), 0.3 μ Ci [α - 33 P]-dCTP (specific activity 1000–3000 Ci/mmol). Standard DNA fragments were added in increasing amounts (0.0313 to 0.4 pg) to reaction tubes. The RT reaction was performed at 56° for 40 min, and finally at 95° for 4 min, to terminate the M-MLV RT activity. The PCR was conducted in a Perkin-Elmer 9600 thermal cycler with the following cycle: 94° (10 sec), 55° (15 sec), 72° (30 sec). The number of cycles (PMCA₁ = 23, and 24-hydroxylase = 25) was determined empirically from preliminary efficiency tests.

Electrophoresis was conducted using 8 μ L of PCR products from each reaction that was loaded onto a 5% polyacrylamide gel. The gel was electrophoresed in TBE buffer [53.4 mM Tris—borate and 1.2 mM EDTA (pH 8.0)] for 1 hr at 35 W. Following electrophoresis, the gel was fixed onto Whatman chromatographic paper and dried. Radioactive bands were quantitated with a Packard imager. The log of the radioactive count ratio between target gene product and standard DNA product was plotted against the log of mimic concentration. The equation from linear regression of each curve was used for calculating the RNA concentration in each sample.

Competitive Protein Binding Analysis

Competitive binding assays using the calf thymus 1,25-(OH)₂D-receptor and the rat plasma vitamin D binding protein were performed as previously described [13].

EMSAs

Expression of rhVDR and rhRXRα and their use in the shift assay have been described previously [14, 15]. Briefly, the standard binding buffer consisted of 120 mM KCl, 20 mM Tris (pH 7.5), 1.5 mM EDTA, 2 mM DTT, 5% glycerol, 0.5% CHAPS, 10 mM NaF, 100 µM Na₃VO₄, 0.5 mg dIdC, 0.5 mM leupeptin, and 250 nM vitamin D compound in a 20-µL volume. All samples were incubated at 4°. Cytosols of recombinant receptor extracts were diluted 1:50 into a KTEDG buffer solution [400 mM KCl, 20 mM Tris (pH 7.5), 1 mM EDTA, 2 mM DTT, and 10% glycerol] prior to use. Aliquots of the diluted receptor mixture (2 µL per 20-mL binding sample) were mixed with the appropriate vitamin D-containing solution to yield the standard binding buffer indicated above. Following 30 min in this buffer, the radiolabeled 24-hydroxylase probe was added, and the incubation continued for an additional 30 min. Then the samples were applied to cooled, pre-run 5% polyacrylamide gels (29:1) in 0.5x TBE buffer, and electrophoresis was initiated at 14 V/cm for 2.5 hr. Gels were transferred and dried, and autoradiography was performed. The radiolabeled rat 24-hydroxylase VDRE probe was prepared by annealing synthetic oligonucleotides possessing 4-bp overhangs: top strand, 5'-TCG AGC GGC GCC CTC ACT CAC CTC GCG-3'. End-labeling was 704 R. Horst et al.

TABLE 1. Plasma calcium and vitamin D sterol concentrations in rats dosed with 1 ng/g body weight of either $1,24-(OH)_2D_3$, $1,25-(OH)_2D_3$, or $1,24-(OH)_2D_2$

	Calcium*	1,24-OH) ₂ D ₂ *	1,24-(OH) ₂ D ₃	$1,25-(OH)_2D_3^*$	Total
Treatment	(mg/dL)		(pg/mL)	·	1α-hydroxylated*
Control 1,24-(OH) ₂ D ₂ 1,24-(OH) ₂ D ₃ 1,25-(OH) ₂ D ₃	10.7 ± 0.1^{a} 10.6 ± 0.2^{a} 11.1 ± 0.3^{b} 11.4 ± 0.3^{b}	8 ± 4 ^a 43 ± 10 ^b 7 ± 7 ^a <4	<4 <4 88 ± 22 <4	116 ± 10^{a} 52 ± 22^{b} 23 ± 8^{b} 377 ± 61^{c}	128 ± 12 ^a 99 ± 20 ^a 118 ± 35 ^a 385 ± 62 ^b

Samples were obtained 4–5 hr following the last of the seven daily doses. Values are means \pm SEM, N = 5.

achieved by the fill-in reaction using [³²P]-dATP in combination with Klenow fragment. Annealed, radiolabeled probes were then gel-purified prior to their use. The assays were repeated four times for each compound.

Statistics

The effect of treatment was analyzed by ANOVA, and transformed treatment means were compared using Statview 4.5 (SAS Institute).

RESULTS Vitamin D Metabolites

Table 1 summarizes the concentrations of the 1α -hydroxylated metabolites measured 4-5 hr following the last of the seven daily doses. Changes in plasma vitamin D metabolites reflected the treatments imposed on the different groups (Table 1). Plasma 1,24-(OH)₂D₂ was elevated from a concentration of 8 pg/mL (controls) to 43 pg/mL in $1,24-(OH)_2D_2$ -treated rats. Likewise, $1,24-(OH)_2D_3$ was elevated from < 4 to 88 pg/mL in 1,24-(OH)₂D₃-treated animals. Plasma concentrations of 1,25-(OH)₂D₃ were elevated from 116 to 377 pg/mL in 1,25-(OH)₂D₃-treated rats. Plasma 1,25-(OH)₂D₃ was also depressed significantly (P < 0.05) relative to controls, in rats treated with 1,24-(OH)₂D₂ to 52 pg/mL and in rats treated with 1,24-(OH)₂D₃ to 23 pg/mL. The depression in plasma 1,25- $(OH)_2D_3$ appeared to be more pronounced in the 1,24-(OH)₂D₃-treated group, although not significantly. Total 1α-hydroxylated metabolites are also summarized in Table 1. These numbers reflect the combined concentrations of the three metabolites measured. As shown, relative to controls, the total 1\alpha-hydroxylated metabolites remained relatively unchanged in the 1,24-(OH)₂D₂- and 1,24-(OH)₂D₃-treated rats, but were elevated in the 1,25- $(OH)_2D_3$ -treated rats.

Calcium

Plasma calcium was elevated in the rats treated with 1,24- $(OH)_2D_3$ and 1,25- $(OH)_2D_3$, but not in the 1,24- $(OH)_2D_2$ -dosed rats. Urinary calcium (expressed as total calcium excreted per day or micrograms calcium per milligram of creatinine) was elevated significantly (relative to

controls) in all groups (Fig. 3). The order of activity was 1,25- $(OH)_2D_3 \ge 1,24$ - $(OH)_2D_3 > 1,24$ - $(OH)_2D_2$.

mRNA

The mRNA was quantitated for 24-hydroxylase and PMCA₁ in intestinal and kidney tissues (Fig. 4). Duodenal 24-hydroxylase mRNA was elevated in all groups relative to controls; however, the elevations were significantly higher in the $1,24-(OH)_2D_3$ and $1,25-(OH)_2D_3$ groups compared with the $1,24-(OH)_2D_2$ group. Kidney 24-hydroxylase also was elevated significantly in the $1,24-(OH)_2D_3$ and $1,25-(OH)_2D_3$ groups relative to the control and the $1,24-(OH)_2D_2$ groups. Duodenal PMCA₁ was elevated in all groups relative to controls. There were,

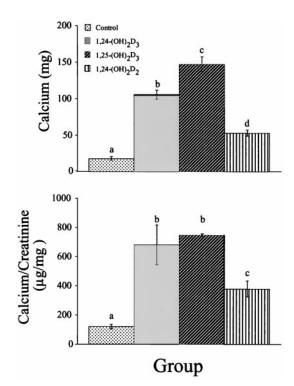


FIG. 3. Cumulative calcium excretion (days 3–7 of treatment) expressed as milligrams per day (upper panel) or micrograms per milligram of creatinine (lower panel) in control rats and those treated with 1,24-(OH)₂D₂, 1,24-(OH)₂D₃, or 1,25-(OH)₂D₃. Data represent the means \pm SEM of 6 rats/group. Values not sharing a common letter are significantly different ($P \le 0.05$).

^{*}Values in columns with different superscripts are significantly different, $P \le 0.05$.

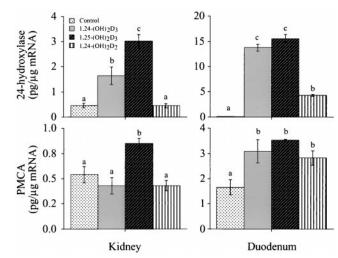


FIG. 4. Kidney and duodenal 24-hydroxylase and PMCA₁ mRNA concentrations in control rats and those treated with 1,24-(OH)₂D₂, 1,24-(OH)₂D₃, or 1,25-(OH)₂D₃. Data represent the means \pm SEM of 3 rats/group. Values not sharing a common letter are significantly different ($P \le 0.05$).

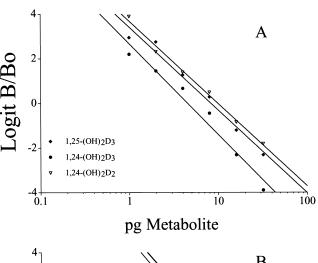
however, no significant differences between groups in this parameter. In contrast, kidney PMCA₁ was elevated in only the 1,25-(OH)₂D₃ group.

Competitive Protein Binding Assay

The relative ability of 1,24-(OH)₂D₃ and 1,24-(OH)₂D₂ to compete for binding sites on the vitamin D receptor prepared from calf thymus was examined. As shown in Fig. 5A, 1,24-(OH)₂D₃ had ~2-fold higher affinity for binding to the receptor than 1,25-(OH)₂D₃ and ~2.5 fold greater affinity than 1,24-(OH)₂D₂. We also examined the ability of the metabolites to compete for binding to the plasma vitamin D binding protein (Fig. 5B). In this assay, 1,25-(OH)₂D₃ had ~10% greater affinity for binding sites than either 1,24-(OH)₂D₂ or 1,24-(OH)₂D₃. The latter two metabolites had equal affinity for the plasma vitamin D binding protein.

EMSA Analysis of Metabolite/rhVDR/rhRXR Complex

Binding of either $1,25 \cdot (OH)_2D_3$ or $1,24 \cdot (OH)_2D_3$ to the rhVDR/rhRXR heterodimer stimulated ($P \leq 0.05$) the mobility of the 24-hydroxylase VDRE/heterodimer complex when compared with the ligand-free complex (Table 2, Fig. 6A). Binding by $1,24 \cdot (OH)_2D_2$ also increased the mobility of the complex, but not significantly. These observed ligand-induced mobility changes were not related to gel "smiling" and were independent of the order of loading or position on the gel. The graph (Fig. 6B) represents the densitometric scans of the individual lanes. Intensities of the bound bands were approximately equal for $1,25 \cdot (OH)_2D_3$ and $1,24 \cdot (OH)_2D_2$, both of which were approximately 20% higher than the band intensity exhibited in the absence of ligand. $1,24 \cdot (OH)_2D_3$, however, had



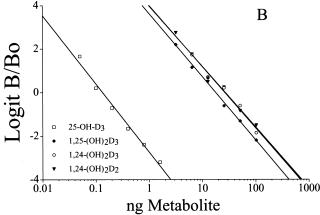


FIG. 5. Displacement potency of 1,24- $(OH)_2D_2$, 1,24- $(OH)_2D_3$, and 1,25- $(OH)_2D_3$ using (A) the calf thymus as a source of the 1,25-dihydroxyvitamin D receptor, and (B) rat plasma as a source of the plasma vitamin D binding protein.

a higher band intensity than either 1,25- $(OH)_2D_3$ or 1,24- $(OH)_2D_2$. Statistical evaluation of the maximum intensities for each treatment is summarized in Table 2. Although the intensities were higher for 1,25- $(OH)_2D_3$ and 1,24- $(OH)_2D_2$, they were not statistically different (P > 0.05) from the control. The band intensity resulting from the 1,24- $(OH)_2D_3$ treatment, however, was different from controls $(P \le 0.05)$.

TABLE 2. Effect of $1,25-(OH)_2D_3$, $1,24-(OH)_2D_3$, and $1,24-(OH)_2D_2$ on EMSA mobility of rhVDR/rhRXR heterodimers bound to 24-hydroxylase VDRE

Treatment	Mobility* (pixels)	Maximum intensity* (arbitrary units)
Control 1,25-(OH) ₂ D ₃ 1,24-(OH) ₂ D ₃ 1,24-(OH) ₂ D ₂	197 ± 0.9^{a} 208 ± 1.2^{b} 206 ± 3.0^{b} 203 ± 2.5^{a}	$ \begin{array}{r} 144 \pm 13^{a} \\ 168 \pm 5.5^{a} \\ 182 \pm 7.2^{b} \\ 168 \pm 2.6^{a} \end{array} $

Data are presented as means \pm SEM, N = 4.

^{*}Values in columns with different superscripts are significantly different, $P \le 0.05$.

706 R. Horst et al.

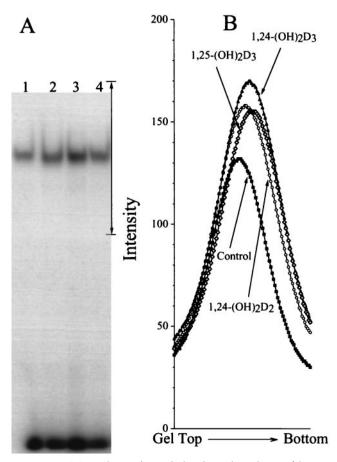


FIG. 6. EMSA analysis of metabolite bound to rhVDR/rhRXR heterodimer. (A) The heterodimer complex was bound to the 24-hydroxylase VDRE in the absence of metabolite (control, lane 1) or in the presence of 250 nM 1,25-(OH)₂D₃ (lane 2), 1,24-(OH)₂D₃ (lane 3), and 1,24-(OH)₂D₂ (lane 4). (B) Autoradiograph from (A) was scanned over the entire length, but only the region encompassing the bound probe is presented to highlight the mobility differences.

DISCUSSION

 $1,24-(OH)_2D_2$ and $1,24-(OH)_2D_3$ are vitamin D metabolites currently being investigated for use in treating a variety of human diseases that are responsive to vitamin D [6–9, 16–18]. Successful use of these and other vitamin D-related compounds relies not only on their ability to cure the diseases of interest but also in avoiding unwanted and potentially dangerous side-effects such as hypercalcemia. To that end, we tested the ability of 1,24-(OH)₂D₂ and 1,24-(OH)₂D₃ to effect changes in several biological parameters related to calcium and vitamin D metabolism. Previous studies comparing 1,24-(OH)₂D₂ or 1,24-(OH)₂D₃ to 1,25-(OH)₂D₃ in vitamin D-deficient and/or vitamin D-replete rats found that the 24-hydroxylated analogs produced smaller increases in calcium levels than did 1,25-(OH)₂D₃ [3, 5–9]. The present study compared $1,24-(OH)_2D_2$ and $1,24-(OH)_2D_3$ with each other as well as with 1,25- $(OH)_2D_3$ in vitamin D-replete rats. The results indicated that 1,24-(OH)₂D₂ is less potent than either 1,24-(OH)₂D₃ or 1,25-(OH)₂D₃ in producing hypercalcemia or hypercalciuria in young growing rats, and that 1,24-(OH)₂D₃ was similar to or slightly less active than 1,25-(OH)₂D₃ in this respect (Table 1, Fig. 3). Surprisingly, the degree of hypercalcemia and hypercalciuria induced by these compounds was not related to plasma concentrations of the vitamin D sterols with which the animals were being treated. For example, $1,25-(OH)_2D_3$ and $1,24-(OH)_2D_3$ were similar in their ability to increase plasma and urinary calcium; however, their effect on plasma levels of 1αhydroxylated compounds differed. Plasma concentration of 1,25-(OH)₂D₃, and, therefore, total 1α -hydroxylated compounds, was elevated 3-fold from 116 pg/mL in controls to a peak of 377 pg/mL in rats treated with 1,25-(OH)₂D₃, whereas the plasma level of total 1α -hydroxylated compounds was unchanged in 1,24-(OH)₂D₃-treated rats (Table 1). 1,24-(OH)₂D₂, which had the least effect on plasma and urinary calcium perturbations, also did not change the levels of total 1α-hydroxylated compounds. The reasons for the differences in peak analog concentrations achieved with each treatment are unknown. Several factors could be involved, including absorption, tissue sequestration, metabolism, and/or binding to the plasma vitamin D binding protein. There is little or no information regarding absorption and tissue sequestration of 1-hydroxylated vitamin D analogs, primarily due to the lack of appropriate radiolabeled material. One preliminary report, however, did indicate that 1α -OH-D₂ and 1α -OH-D₃ had similar bioavailability when given orally [19]. There is, however, information regarding further metabolism of these compounds. For example, it has been demonstrated that 1,25- $(OH)_2D_3$ and $1,24-(OH)_2D_3$ are both metabolized to 1,24,25-(OH)₃D₃ [20, 21], while 1,24-(OH)₂D₂ is metabolized preferentially to 1,24,26-(OH)₃D₂. The 25-hydroxylation of $1,24-(OH)_2D_2$ to form $1,24,25-(OH)_3D_2$ appears to be minimal or nonexistent [22]. The 1,24,25-(OH)₃D₃ has biological activity [20], whereas 1,24,25(OH)₃D₂ and 1,24,26-(OH)₃D₂ are relatively inert [22, 23]. These differences in metabolic pathways and the speed at which they occur may partially explain the differences in plasma concentrations as well as their calcemic activity. In addition, both $1,24-(OH)_2D_2$ and $1,24-(OH)_2D_3$ have lower affinity for the plasma vitamin D binding protein than 1,25-(OH)₂D₃ (Fig. 5B). Lower affinity for the plasma vitamin D binding protein is known to render vitamin D analogs more readily available for target tissue distribution and metabolism [24]. These characteristics could also help explain the dissociation between plasma concentration and biological response.

The levels of vitamin D-24-hydroxylase were also affected differently by 1,24- $(OH)_2D_2$ relative to the other analogs. 1,24- $(OH)_2D_3$ and 1,25- $(OH)_2D_3$ produced similar increases in duodenal and kidney 24-hydroxylase mRNA, and these increases were significantly greater than the response produced by 1,24- $(OH)_2D_2$. In contrast, changes in the levels of enzymes involved in calcium and vitamin D metabolism, namely the 25-hydroxyvitamin D-1 α -hydroxylase and PMCA, were similar for 1,24-

 $(OH)_2D_2$ and $1,24-(OH)_2D_3$. The reduction in the endogenous levels of 1,25-(OH)₂D₃ by 1,24-(OH)₂D₂ and 1,24-(OH)₂D₃ (Table 1) may be viewed as a measure of a systemic effect, namely, the capacity of the analog to inhibit the renal 25-hydroxyvitamin D-1 α -hydroxylase. As shown in Table 1, the plasma level of 1,25-(OH)₂D₃ was lowered by both of these compounds. While 1,24-(OH)₂D₃ appeared to have a greater effect, the reduction produced by 1,24-(OH)₂D₃ and 1,24-(OH)₂D₂ was not statistically different. Furthermore, the mRNA for PMCA in the duodenum was up-regulated significantly to about the same level by all sterols. PMCA is thought to play an integral role in the transport of calcium across the intestine [20]; however, most of the research on this enzyme has used the vitamin D-deficient rat. While 1,25-(OH)₂D₃ increased the mRNA for this enzyme in the kidney as well, neither of the 24-hydroxylated analogs elicited this response in the vitamin D-replete rats. Nonetheless, the data from the duodenum suggested that 1,24-(OH)₂D₂, as well as 1,24-(OH)₂D₃, can up-regulate some vitamin D-responsive genes to the same degree as 1,25-(OH)₂D₃.

It appears, therefore, that 1,24-(OH)₂D₂ and 1,24-(OH)₂D₃ can produce differing effects on serum and urine calcium and on the induction of mRNA for the vitamin D-24-hydroxylase, but similar effects on the activity of 25-hydroxyvitamin D-1α-hydroxylase and induction of mRNA for PMCA. The mechanism(s) by which these and other vitamin D analogs produce differing biological effects is the subject of much current investigation. The efficiency of 1,24-(OH)₂D₃ at eliciting changes in plasma and urinary calcium was quite dramatic, particularly when considering the relatively minor changes in plasma concentrations seen in rats treated with this metabolite. Inspection of the data in Table 2 and Figs. 2 and 6 may provide some insights as to the possible mechanisms of the apparent activity of 1,24-(OH)₂D₃. Two molecular events that are important to the biological action of vitamin D metabolites are binding to VDR and binding of the VDR/RXR complex to DNA. The VDR binding data in Fig. 2 suggest that 1,24-(OH)₂D₃ has ~2-fold greater affinity than 1,25-(OH)₂D₃ for calf thymus VDR. This result was similar to those reported earlier by Matsumoto et al. [7], who used receptor isolated from human keratinocytes, and by Binderup [25], who used receptor isolated from rachitic chicken. In addition to enhanced receptor affinity, binding of the rhVDR/rhRXR complex to the 24-hydroxylase VDRE was enhanced significantly by 1,24-(OH)₂D₃ relative to controls, as demonstrated by the increased band intensity observed in the EMSA analysis (Table 2, Fig. 6). In this assay, both 1,24-(OH)₂D₂ and 1,25-(OH)₂D₃ produced similar maximum intensities and were elevated but were not statistically different relative to controls. Therefore, 1,24-(OH)₂D₃ may evoke a more potent biological response as a result of enhanced VDR binding and increased avidity of binding between the VDR/RXR complex and the VDRE.

In conclusion, these data indicate that 1,24- $(OH)_2D_2$ is less hypercalcemic and less hypercalciuric, and its ability to

up-regulate the tissue 24-hydroxylase was also attenuated relative to 1,24-(OH)₂D₃ or 1,25-(OH)₂D₃. The ability of 1,24-(OH)₂D₂ to up-regulate the intestinal CaATPase was, however, indistinguishable from that of either 1,24- $(OH)_2D_3$ or 1,25- $(OH)_2D_3$. Treatment with either 1,24-(OH)₂D₂ or 1,24-(OH)₂D₃ produced a similar reduction in endogenous 1,25-(OH)₂D₃ plasma levels. These data suggest that 1,24-(OH)₂D₂ produces smaller increases in calcium levels in young growing rats; however, 1,24-(OH)₂D₂ can evoke other biological responses similar to the vitamin D₃ sterols. 1,24-(OH)₂D₂ also induced conformational changes in the VDR/RXR complex that were different from those induced by either $1,24-(OH)_2D_3$ or $1,25-(OH)_2D_3$. These different conformational states may explain why some vitamin D metabolites and/or analogs can up-regulate some vitamin D-responsive genes but at the same time be less hypercalcemic.

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